

# Decision under uncertainty

**Sébastien Destercke**

**CNRS researcher, Laboratoire Heudiasyc, Compiègne**

**Master courses**

## A game to start with

Did I drink tea this morning?

## A game to start with

Did I drink tea this morning?

You win 100 euros if I had tea this morning. What's the max you would bet on it?

## A game to start with

Did I drink tea this morning?

You win 100 euros if I had tea this morning. What's the max you would bet on it?

You win 100 euros if I had no tea this morning. What's the max you would bet on it?



## A game to start with

Did I drink tea this morning?

You win 100 euros if I had tea this morning. What's the max you would bet on it?

You win 100 euros if I had no tea this morning. What's the max you would bet on it?

Ok, now your neighbour can buy/sell as many tickets as he/she wants. His/her task is, if possible, to be sure to win money.

# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- Decision with probability sets

# Basic modelling

- The state  $X$  of the world
  - take values in some (finite or not) set  $\mathcal{X}$  of possible situations
  - $\mathcal{X}$  assumed exhaustive and of sufficient granularity
  - is uncertainly known
- How to model our uncertainty about  $X$ ?
  - by probabilities  $\rightarrow$  why???

## Basic definitions

### Basic tool

A probability distribution  $p: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  such that

- $p(x) \geq 0$
- $\sum_x p(x) = 1$

from which for any subset we have

- $P(A) = \sum_{x \in A} p(x)$
- $P(A) = 1 - P(A^c)$ : auto-dual

### Example

Academic dice Assume a dice, we have  $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$ :

$$p(1) = p(2) = p(3) = p(4) = p(5) = p(6) = 1/6$$

$$P(\{1, 3, 5\}) = 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2$$

# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- Decision with probability sets

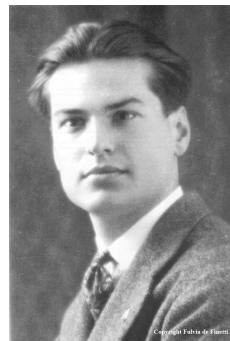
## Three important guys



L. Savage



J. Von Neumann



B. De Finetti

All justify probabilities (and expected utilities) as uncertainty models without frequencies → we will detail a bit how the second one does it

## An example

A gamble/ticket  $f$ , whose reward depends on who win the most sets in next Roland Garros



Nadal



Ruud



Cilic



Djokovic

$f =$

-2

10

0

5

What price  $P(f)$  do you associate to this ticket?

## Acceptable transaction

The price

$$P(f)$$

is the "fair" price you associate to the ticket/gamble  $f$ :

- You would buy for any price  $P(f) - \epsilon$ , earning

$$f - (P(f) - \epsilon)$$

- You would sell for any price  $P(f) + \epsilon$ , earning

$$(P(f) + \epsilon) - f$$

→ how should a "rational" agent specify prices?



## Transaction on an event

Remember the bet on tea?

Betting on an event  $A$  amounts to play the gamble

$$\mathbb{I}_A = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } A \text{ happens} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

We can use  $A$  and  $\mathbb{I}_A$  interchangeably, i.e.

$$P(\mathbb{I}_A) = P(A)$$

## Avoiding the dutch book<sup>1</sup>

- A set of gambles  $f_1, \dots, f_n$
- **You** set prices  $P(f_1), \dots, P(f_n)$
- I can sell ( $\lambda_i > 0$ ) or buy ( $\lambda_i < 0$ ) to you any number of gambles
- **You** are **irrational** if there is a dutch book, i.e., a combination with

$$\sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum \lambda_i (f_i(x) - P(f_i)) < 0,$$

meaning that whatever happens, you lose money.

- so, a **rational** agent should avoid sure losses when setting prices  $P(f_1), \dots, P(f_n)$

---

<sup>1</sup>History unclear

## Probabilities and expectations (exercices)

Do the following:

- Prove that if you are rational, then  $\inf f \leq P(f) \leq \sup f$
- Prove that if you are rational, then  $P(f + g) = P(f) + P(g)$
- Deduce that  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$  if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$

A little bit more:

- Show that  $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(\{x\}) = 1$
- Show that  $P(f) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x)P(\{x\})$

## Probabilities and expectations (exercices)

Do the following:

- Prove that if you are rational, then  $\inf f \leq P(f) \leq \sup f$
- Prove that if you are rational, then  $P(f+g) = P(f) + P(g)$
- Deduce that  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$  if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$

A little bit more:

- Show that  $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(\{x\}) = 1$
- Show that  $P(f) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x)P(\{x\})$

The **first** and **second** properties/axioms are enough to characterize probabilities and expectations.

## Wrap-up so far

Subjective probabilities<sup>2</sup>:

- Betting behaviour in terms of fair price reflect (can be used to measure) your knowledge about the world
- If you are rational, those bets should conform with probabilities and expected utilities
- Those bets can be given for all kinds of events, including those that will happen only once

Yet, maybe there is a little more to the story.

---

<sup>2</sup>Often taken as an interpretation for Bayesian approaches

# Outline

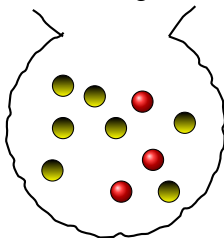
- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
  - Rationality
  - Some axiomatics
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- Decision with probability sets

# Experimental protocol

- Half the room goes out
- The rest pick a choice
- We exchange (inside goes outside, and vice-versa)

# Urns and balls: case 1

9 balls, 3 are reds, 6 remaining are either yellow or black



What would you choose between A and B?

A

R(ed)	B(lack)	Y(ellow)
100 \$	0 \$	0\$

B

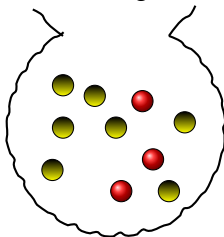
R(ed)	B(lack)	Y(ellow)
0 \$	100 \$	0\$



# Interlude during the change

## Urns and balls: case 2

9 balls, 3 are reds, 6 remaining are either yellow or black



What would you choose between C and D?

C

R(ed)	B(lack)	Y(ellow)
100 \$	0 \$	100\$

D

R(ed)	B(lack)	Y(ellow)
0 \$	100 \$	100\$

## An illustration of a possible use (more latter)



Is it a lioness? a cat? a puma? a bobcat?

# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
  - Rationality
  - Some axiomatics
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- Decision with probability sets

## Are buying and selling the same?

What if we considered that buying and selling prices for  $f$  modelling your knowledge could differ?

- For  $f$ , we now consider a maximal buying price  $\underline{P}(f)$
- Meaning you would **buy**  $f$  for any price under  $\underline{P}(f)$
- Any transaction  $f - (\underline{P}(f) - \epsilon)$  is acceptable/desirable
- More formally:

$$\underline{P}(f) = \sup\{x \in \mathbb{R} : f - x \text{ is acceptable} \}$$

## Why not caring about selling prices?

- $\overline{P}(f)$  is your minimal selling price for  $f$ :

$$\overline{P}(f) = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x - f \text{ is acceptable}\}$$

- Yet, we do have<sup>3</sup>:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{P}(f) &= \sup\{x \in \mathbb{R} : f - x \text{ is acceptable}\} \\ &= -\inf\{-x \in \mathbb{R} : f - x \text{ is acceptable}\} \\ &= -\inf\{y \in \mathbb{R} : f + y \text{ is acceptable}\} \\ &= -\inf\{y \in \mathbb{R} : y - (-f) \text{ is acceptable}\} \\ &= -\overline{P}(-f) \end{aligned}$$

- By duality, we can only deal with buying prices.

---

<sup>3</sup>Note that it does not imply  $\overline{P}(f) = \underline{P}(f)$

## Being a rational agent: sure loss revisited

- A set of gambles  $f_1, \dots, f_n \in \mathcal{K}$
- **You** set prices  $\underline{P}(f_1), \dots, \underline{P}(f_n)$
- I can sell<sup>4</sup> ( $\lambda_i > 0$ ) to you any number of gambles for these price or lower
- **You** are **irrational** and incur sure loss if there is a combination

$$\sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}, \lambda_i > 0} \sum \lambda_i (f_i(x) - \underline{P}(f_i)) < 0$$

- so, a **rational** agent should avoid sure loss when setting prices  $\underline{P}(f_1), \dots, \underline{P}(f_n)$
- It is strictly weaker than previously.

---

<sup>4</sup>But not buy anymore

# Back to tennis



Nadal (a)



Ruud (b)



Cilic (c)



Djokovic (d)

$$\underline{P}(f_i) =$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{a\}} \\ 0.35$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{b\}} \\ 0.2$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{c\}} \\ 0.3$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{d\}} \\ 0.2$$

Are those assessments rational? Why?



## Being a reasoning agent: natural extension

- Assume prices  $\underline{P}(f_i)$  avoid sure loss
- Consider a new gamble/function  $g$
- What can I deduced about  $\underline{P}(g)$  from  $\underline{P}(f_i)$ ?
- The process of **natural extension** provides the answer:
  - Knowing that  $f_i - \underline{P}(f_i)$  are acceptable
  - Find the highest price  $\underline{P}'(g)$  making  $g - \underline{P}'(g)$  acceptable
  - This amounts to solve

$$\underline{P}'(g) = \sup_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda_i \geq 0} \{ \alpha : g - \alpha \geq \sum_i \lambda_i (f_i - \underline{P}(f_i)) \}$$

- We know  $g - \alpha$  acceptable, because  $\sum_i \lambda_i (f_i - \underline{P}(f_i))$  acceptable
- Applying this to  $f_i$  itself, I say that prices  $\underline{P}(f_i)$  are **coherent** if

$$\underline{P}'(f_i) = \underline{P}(f_i), \quad \forall f_i$$

## Tennis again, rational assessments



Nadal (a)



Ruud (b)



Cilic (c)



Djokovic (d)

$$\underline{P}(f_i) =$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{a\}} \\ 0.35$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{b\}} \\ 0.15$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{c\}} \\ 0.2$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{d\}} \\ 0.2$$

$$\underline{P}(f_i) =$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{b,c,d\}} \\ 0.5$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{a,c,d\}} \\ 0.7$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{a,b,d\}} \\ 0.6$$

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{a,b,c\}} \\ 0.6$$

Are those assessments coherent? Why?

# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
  - Rationality
  - Some axiomatics
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- Decision with probability sets

## A bit of vocabulary

- $\underline{P}(f), \overline{P}(f)$  often called **lower/upper previsions**,
- A rational  $\underline{P}(f)$  is said to **avoid sure loss**
- $\underline{P}(f)$  that are deductively closed (= their natural extension) are called **coherent**
- When it is the case and for reasons that will become clear,,  
 $\underline{P}(f), \overline{P}(f)$  also called **lower/upper expectations**
- Similarly,  $\underline{P}(\mathbb{I}_A) = \underline{P}(A)$  and  $\overline{P}(\mathbb{I}_A) = \overline{P}(A)$  are called **lower/upper probabilities**

## Coherence through betting on linear spaces

- assume space  $\mathcal{K}$  of gambles is linear

$$g, f \in \mathcal{K} \implies f + g \in \mathcal{K}$$

$$g \in \mathcal{K}, \alpha g \in \mathcal{K} \text{ for } \alpha \geq 0$$

- Then  $\underline{P}$  is coherent if and only if

$$\underline{P}(f) \geq \inf f \text{ (sure bet)}$$

$$\underline{P}(\lambda f) = \lambda \underline{P}(f) \text{ (positive homogeneity)}$$

$$\underline{P}(f + g) \geq \underline{P}(f) + \underline{P}(g) \text{ (super-additivity)}$$

- You get back De Finetti probabilities (a.k.a. linear previsions) if super-additivity becomes additivity

## Coherence through desirability

- A gamble  $f$  is desirable if  $\underline{P}(f) = 0$
- A set  $\mathcal{D}$  of desirable gambles is coherent if and only if

If  $\sup f \leq 0$ , then  $f \notin \mathcal{D}$ , if  $f > 0$ , then  $f \in \mathcal{D}$

If  $f, g \in \mathcal{D}$ , then  $f + g \in \mathcal{D}$

If  $f \in \mathcal{D}$ , then  $\lambda f \in \mathcal{D}$  if  $\lambda \geq 0$

- Mathematically, a set  $\mathcal{D}$  is coherent if it forms a cone.

## Coherence through desirability

- A gamble  $f$  is desirable if  $\underline{P}(f) = 0$
- A set  $\mathcal{D}$  of desirable gambles is coherent if and only if

If  $\sup f \leq 0$ , then  $f \notin \mathcal{D}$ , if  $f > 0$ , then  $f \in \mathcal{D}$

If  $f, g \in \mathcal{D}$ , then  $f + g \in \mathcal{D}$

If  $f \in \mathcal{D}$ , then  $\lambda f \in \mathcal{D}$  if  $\lambda \geq 0$

- Mathematically, a set  $\mathcal{D}$  is coherent if it forms a cone.

## Coherence through probability sets (we will stick with that)

- We can interpret  $\underline{P}(f)$  as a lower bound on expectation for probabilities, i.e.,

$$\underline{P}(f) \leq P(f) = \sum_x p(x)f(x)$$

where  $p$  is a probability mass ( $\sum p(x) = 1$  and  $p(x) \geq 0$ ).

- Given  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  and  $\underline{P}(f_i)$ , we can define a set of dominating probabilities (a.k.a. credal sets)

$$\mathcal{M}(\underline{P}) = \{P : P(f) \geq \underline{P}(f)\}$$

- $\underline{P}$  avoids sure loss if and only if  $\mathcal{M}(\underline{P}) \neq \emptyset$
- $\underline{P}$  is coherent if and only if for any  $f_i$ , we have

$$\underline{P}(f_i) = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{M}(\underline{P})} P(f_i)$$

that is if  $\underline{P}$  is the lower envelope of  $\mathcal{M}$



## Thinking in terms of $\mathcal{M}$

If we start by specifying a set  $\mathcal{M}$  of probabilities:

- $\underline{P}(f_i)$  equivalent to provide expectation (linear operator) lower bounds
- Set  $\mathcal{D}$  of desirable gambles=set of random variables having positive lower expectation, i.e.,  $\underline{P}(f_i) = 0$

# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- Decision with probability sets

# Probabilities

Probability mass on finite space  $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  equivalent to a  $n$  dimensional vector

$$p := (p(x_1), \dots, p(x_n))$$

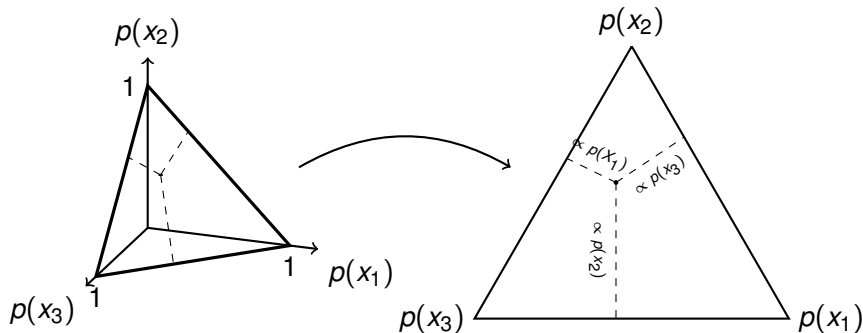
Limited to the set  $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$  of all probabilities

$$p(x) > 0, \quad \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) = 1 \quad \text{and}$$

The set  $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$  is the  $(n-1)$ -unit simplex.

## Point in unit simplex

$$p(x_1) = 0.2, p(x_2) = 0.5, p(x_3) = 0.3$$



## Imprecise probability

Set  $\mathcal{M}$  defined as a set of  $n$  constraints

$$\underline{P}(f_i) \leq \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f_i(x)p(x) \leq \overline{P}(f_i)$$

where  $f_i : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  bounded functions

### Example

$$p(x_2) - 2p(x_3) \geq 0$$

$$f(x_1) = 0, f(x_2) = 1, f(x_3) = -2, \underline{P}(a) = 0$$

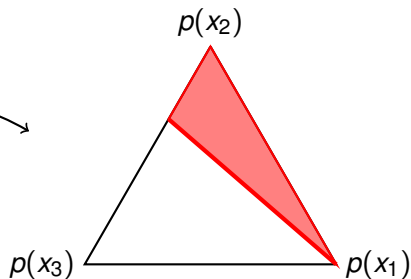
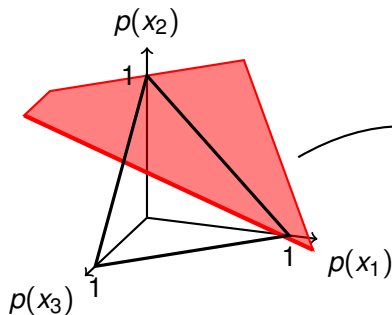
### Lower/upper probabilities

Bounds  $\underline{P}(A), \overline{P}(A)$  on event  $A$  equivalent to

$$\underline{P}(A) \leq \sum_{x \in A} p(x) \leq \overline{P}(A)$$

# Set $\mathcal{M}$ example

$$p(x_2) \geq 2p(x_3) \Rightarrow p(x_2) - 2p(x_3) \geq 0$$

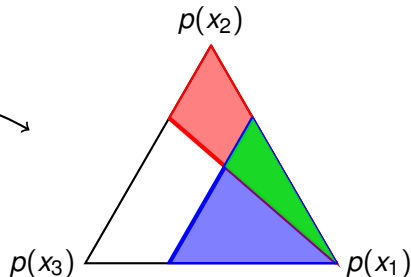
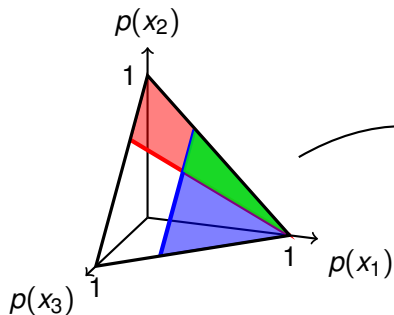


# Credal set example

$$p(x_2) - 2p(x_3) \geq 0$$

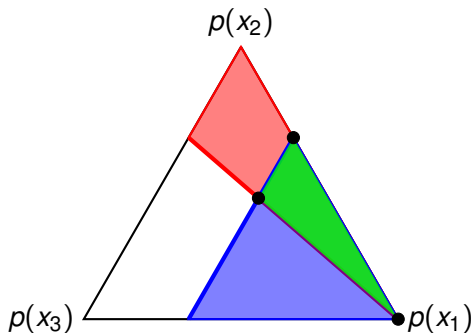
$$p(x_1) \geq 1/3$$

$\mathcal{M}$



## Usual alternative presentation: extreme points

- $p(x_1) = 1, p(x_2) = 0, p(x_3) = 0$
- $p(x_1) = 1/3, p(x_2) = 2/3, p(x_3) = 0$
- $p(x_1) = 1/3, p(x_2) = 4/9, p(x_3) = 2/9$





## Computing natural extension

- Given  $\mathcal{M}$  and a new function  $g$ , get

$$\underline{P}(g) = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{M}} P(g) \text{ or } \overline{P}(g) = \sup_{P \in \mathcal{M}} P(g)$$

- First way: linear programming using  $\underline{P}(f_i)$

$$\underline{P}(g) = \min_{p(x)} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x)g(x)$$

under

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{P}(f_i) &\geq \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x)f_i(x) \geq \underline{P}(f_i) \\ \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) &= 1, p(x) \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- Second way: compute  $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x)g(x)$  for every extreme point, take the minimum

# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- Decision with probability sets

## Why looking at special cases?

- Lower previsions/expectations are quite expressive uncertainty models
- Their general use, especially in large spaces, may require heavy computation (linear optimisation in the best case, often more in complex problems<sup>5</sup>)
- Just as Gaussian makes probabilistic computations easier, so does focusing on specific lower previsions

---

<sup>5</sup>we will see some in the last courses

## A first restriction: lower probabilities

- Lower previsions  $\underline{P}(f_i)$  are defined for any function  $f_i : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .
- Lower probabilities: focusing on events and considering  $\underline{P}(A)$ , i.e., restrict the space to  $2^{\mathcal{X}}$ .
- Upper probabilities are dual<sup>6</sup>:

$$\underline{P}(A) = 1 - \overline{P}(A)$$

- Already include a LOT of models used in practice

---

<sup>6</sup>We can focus on one of the two

## A second reduction: 2-monotonicity

A lower probability  $\underline{P}()$  is 2-monotone if

$$\underline{P}(A \cup B) + \underline{P}(A \cap B) \geq \underline{P}(A) + \underline{P}(B)$$

- Natural extension/lower expectation of  $g$  is given by Choquet integral

$$\underline{P}(g) = \sum_{i=1}^N (g(x_{(i)}) - g(x_{(i-1)})) \underline{P}(\{x_{(i)}, \dots, x_{(N)}\})$$

with  $()$  permutation such that  $g(x_{(0)}) = 0, g(x_{(1)}) \leq \dots \leq g(x_{(N)})$

- Generating extreme points is easy. Take a permutation  $()$  of  $\{1, \dots, N\}$  and compute for each  $i$

$$p(x_{(i)}) = \underline{P}(\{x_{(i)}, \dots, x_{(N)}\}) - \underline{P}(\{x_{(i+1)}, \dots, x_{(N)}\}),$$

then  $p$  is an extreme point of  $\mathcal{M}$

## A very practical example: probability intervals

Given lower/upper previsions on the events  $\{x\}$ ,

$$\underline{P}(\{x\}), \bar{P}(\{x\})$$

Easy to check that  $\mathcal{M}(\underline{P}) \neq \emptyset$ :

$$\sum_x \underline{P}(\{x\}) \leq 1, \sum_x \bar{P}(\{x\}) \geq 1$$

and to check that  $\underline{P}$  is coherent:

$$\forall y, \sum_{y \neq x} \underline{P}(\{x\}) + \bar{P}(\{y\}) \leq 1, \sum_{y \neq x} \bar{P}(\{x\}) + \underline{P}(\{y\}) \geq 1$$

## A very practical example: probability intervals (cont.)

Natural extension to events very easy:

$$\underline{P}(A) = \max\left(\sum_{x \in A} \underline{P}(\{x\}), 1 - \sum_{x \notin A} \bar{P}(\{x\})\right)$$

$$\bar{P}(A) = \min\left(\sum_{x \in A} \bar{P}(\{x\}), 1 - \sum_{x \notin A} \underline{P}(\{x\})\right)$$

Interest:  $\underline{P}$  can be proved to be 2-monotone

## A simple example

Consider the following output of a (credal) classifier:

	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$
$\overline{P}(\{x_i\})$	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.5
$\underline{P}(\{x_i\})$	0.1	0.1	0	0.2

Does it avoids sure loss? Is it coherent?

What are the lower probabilities of the different events?

Can you compute the lower expectation of  
 $a(x_1) = 2, a(x_2) = -3, a(x_3) = -1, a(x_4) = 5$ ?



## A third reduction: belief functions

A belief function is a lower probability  $\underline{P}$  such that for any collection  $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \dots, A_K \subseteq \mathcal{X}\}$  with  $K \leq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$ , we do have

$$\underline{P}(\cup_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}} A_i) \geq \sum_{\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{A}} (-1)^{|\mathcal{B}|+1} \underline{P}(\cap_{A_i \in \mathcal{B}} A_i),$$

known as the property of complete (or  $\infty$ ) monotonicity.

Side exercise: prove that a belief function is also 2-monotone<sup>7</sup>

Side bonus: everything we just said also applies to belief function

---

<sup>7</sup>In fact, if  $\underline{P}$  is  $k$ -monotone, it is also  $(k-1)$ -monotone.

## An interesting tool: Möbius inverse

The Möbius inverse<sup>8</sup>  $m: 2^{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of a given  $\underline{P}$  is

$$m(A) = \sum_{B \subseteq A} (-1)^{|A \setminus B|} \underline{P}(B),$$

and has some interesting properties when applied to belief functions:

- It is bijective with  $\underline{P}$  (true for any  $\underline{P}$ ), as for any  $B$

$$\underline{P}(B) = \sum_{A \subseteq B} m(A)$$

- For a new function  $g$ ,  $\underline{P}(g)$  can be computed<sup>9</sup> as

$$\underline{P}(g) = \sum_{A \subseteq \mathcal{X}} m(A) \cdot \inf_{x \in A} g(x)$$

- $m$  is positive (only true for belief functions)  $\rightarrow$  can be seen as a random distribution over subsets  $\rightarrow$  useful tool to simulate  $\underline{P}$

<sup>8</sup>Apply in fact to general posets

<sup>9</sup>also applies as long as  $\underline{P}$  is 2-monotone

## Example 1: frequencies of imprecise observations

Imprecise poll: "Who will win the next Wimbledon tournament?"

◦ N(adal)      ◦ F(ederer)      ◦ D(jokovic)      ◦ M(urray)      ◦ O(ther)

60 % replied  $\{N, F, D\} \rightarrow m(\{N, F, D\}) = 0.6$

15 % replied "I do not know"  $\{N, F, D, M, O\} \rightarrow m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.15$

10 % replied Murray  $\{M\} \rightarrow m(\{M\}) = 0.1$

5 % replied others  $\{O\} \rightarrow m(\{O\}) = 0.05$

...

## Another frequentist one



Set of labellers replying between

◦ L(ioness) ◦ P(uma) ◦ C(at) ◦ O(celot)

- 25% reply  $\{L, P\} \rightarrow m(\{L, P\}) = 0.2$
- 10% reply  $\{L, P, O\} \rightarrow m(\{L, P, O\}) = 0.1$
- 15% reply  $\{C, O, P\} \rightarrow m(\{C, O, P\}) = 0.15$
- 10% reply  $\{L\} \rightarrow m(\{L\}) = 0.1$
- 40% reply  $\{L, P, C, O\} \rightarrow m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.4$

Assess how likely it is to be a lioness, according to opinions

## Another frequentist one



Set of labellers replying between

◦ L(ioness) ◦ P(uma) ◦ C(at) ◦ O(celot)

- 25% reply  $\{L, P\} \rightarrow m(\{L, P\}) = 0.2$
- 10% reply  $\{L, P, O\} \rightarrow m(\{L, P, O\}) = 0.1$
- 15% reply  $\{C, O, P\} \rightarrow m(\{C, O, P\}) = 0.15$
- 10% reply  $\{L\} \rightarrow m(\{L\}) = 0.1$
- 40% reply  $\{L, P, C, O\} \rightarrow m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.4$

Assess how likely it is to be a lioness, according to opinions

$$\underline{P}(\{L\}) = m(\{L\}) = 0.1$$

## Another frequentist one



Set of labellers replying between

◦ L(ioness) ◦ P(uma) ◦ C(at) ◦ O(celot)

- 25% reply  $\{L, P\} \rightarrow m(\{L, P\}) = 0.2$
- 10% reply  $\{L, P, O\} \rightarrow m(\{L, P, O\}) = 0.1$
- 15% reply  $\{C, O, P\} \rightarrow m(\{C, O, P\}) = 0.15$
- 10% reply  $\{L\} \rightarrow m(\{L\}) = 0.1$
- 40% reply  $\{L, P, C, O\} \rightarrow m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.4$

Assess how likely it is to be a lioness, according to opinions

$$\underline{P}(\{L\}) = m(\{L\}) = 0.1$$

$$\overline{P}(\{L\}) = m(\{L\}) + m(\{L, P, O\}) + m(\{L, P\}) + m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.85$$

## Example 2: Imprecise Distributions [4]

A pair  $[\underline{F}, \overline{F}]$  of cumulative distributions

Bounds over events  $[-\infty, x]$

- Percentiles by experts;
- Kolmogorov-Smirnov bounds;

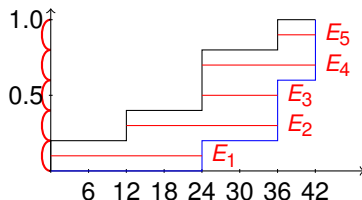
Can be extended to any pre-ordered space [2], [8]  $\Rightarrow$  multivariate spaces!

Expert providing percentiles

$$0 \leq P([-\infty, 12]) \leq 0.2$$

$$0.2 \leq P([-\infty, 24]) \leq 0.4$$

$$0.6 \leq P([-\infty, 36]) \leq 0.8$$



## A fourth reduction: possibility measure

A possibility measure is a maxitive upper probability  $\bar{P}$ :

$$\bar{P}(A \cup B) = \max\{\bar{P}(A), \bar{P}(B)\}$$

This has the following consequences:

- All information is encoded in  $\bar{P}(\{x\})$ , as

$$\bar{P}(A) = \max_{x \in A} \bar{P}(\{x\})$$

- The associated  $\underline{P}$  is a belief function
- The sets receiving positive Möbius mass are nested (form a sequence of included sets)



## A simple example

A set  $E$  of most plausible values

A confidence degree  $\alpha = \underline{P}(E)$

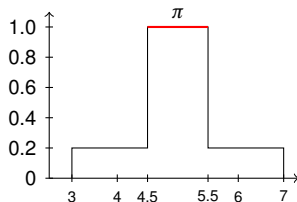
Two interesting cases:

- Expert providing most plausible values  $E$
- $E$  set of models of a formula  $\phi$

Both cases extend to multiple sets  $E_1, \dots, E_p$ :

- confidence degrees over nested sets [6]
- hierarchical knowledge bases [3]

pH value  $\in [4.5, 5.5]$  with  
 $\alpha = 0.8$  ( $\sim$  "quite probable")



## A simple example

A set  $E$  of most plausible values

A confidence degree  $\alpha = \underline{P}(E)$

Two interesting cases:

- Expert providing most plausible values  $E$
- $E$  set of models of a formula  $\phi$

Both cases extend to multiple sets  $E_1, \dots, E_p$ :

- confidence degrees over nested sets [6]
- hierarchical knowledge bases [3]

variables  $p, q$

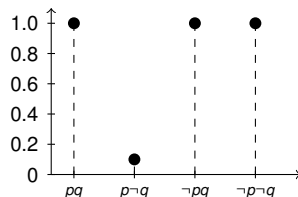
$$\Omega = \{pq, \neg pq, p\neg q, \neg p\neg q\}$$

$$\underline{P}(p \Rightarrow q) = 0.9$$

(~ "almost certain")

$$E = \{pq, p\neg q, \neg p\neg q\}$$

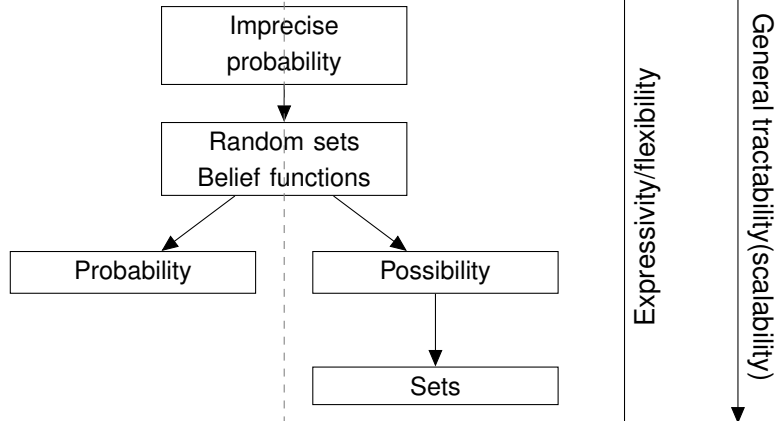
- $\pi(pq) = \pi(p\neg q) = \pi(\neg p\neg q) = 1$
- $\pi(\neg pq) = 0.1$



# A quick and incomplete summary

Able to model variability

Incompleteness tolerant



# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- **Decision with probability sets**
  - Probabilities
  - Ignorance, complete order
  - Ignorance, partial orders
  - Probability sets with illustration

## Decision setting

- Still a set  $\mathcal{X}$  of states
- A set  $\mathcal{A}$  of actions
- To each action  $a: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  corresponds a mapping such that  $a(x)$  is the reward/utility of performing  $a$  when  $x$  is true
- Possibly a set  $\mathcal{M}$  modelling our knowledge about  $X$

Decision problem (here): recommend one or multiple actions based on our knowledge about the states in  $\mathcal{X}$

## An example

What we see when walking at night

- States: the kind of animal
- Actions: what you choose to do



## States $\mathcal{X}$

$x_1 = (\text{L})\text{ioness}$     $x_2 = (\text{P})\text{uma}$     $x_3 = (\text{C})\text{at}$     $x_4 = (\text{O})\text{celot}$



## Actions $\mathcal{A}$

## States $\mathcal{X}$

$x_1 = (\text{L})\text{ioness}$     $x_2 = (\text{P})\text{uma}$     $x_3 = (\text{C})\text{at}$     $x_4 = (\text{O})\text{celot}$



## Actions $\mathcal{A}$

$a_1 = (\text{R})\text{un}$





## States $\mathcal{X}$

$x_1 = (\text{L})\text{ioness}$     $x_2 = (\text{P})\text{uma}$     $x_3 = (\text{C})\text{at}$     $x_4 = (\text{O})\text{celot}$



## Actions $\mathcal{A}$

$a_1 = (\text{R})\text{un}$     $a_2 = (\text{S})\text{hout}$



## States $\mathcal{X}$

$x_1 = (\text{L})\text{ioness}$     $x_2 = (\text{P})\text{uma}$     $x_3 = (\text{C})\text{at}$     $x_4 = (\text{O})\text{celot}$



## Actions $\mathcal{A}$

$a_1 = (\text{R})\text{un}$

$a_2 = (\text{S})\text{hout}$

$a_3 = (\text{D})\text{o nothing}$



# The matrix $\mathcal{U}$

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$
$R$	7	-3	3	5
$S$	-10	4	4	11
$D$	-5	-5	5	7

Which action to choose?

# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- Decision with probability sets
  - Probabilities
  - Ignorance, complete order
  - Ignorance, partial orders
  - Probability sets with illustration

## A quick reminder of expected utility

- Set of states  $\mathcal{X}$
- Probability masses  $p(x)$  for each state
- Act/decision  $a$  maps each state to a utility

$$a: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

- Expected utility of  $a$

$$P(a) = \sum_x p(x) a(x)$$

## An easy decision rule

One possible interpretation:  $P(a)$  is your price/value<sup>10</sup> of act  $a$ , then

$$a \succ b \text{ if and only if } P(a) > P(b)$$

that is, you would "spend" more to buy  $a$  than  $b$ .

---

<sup>10</sup>In a linear utility. Quique, que es muy elegante y inteligente, explained it yesterday.

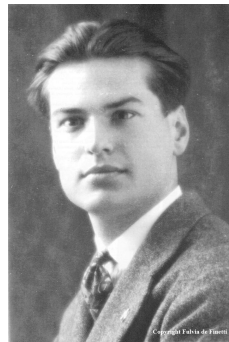
## Three important guys



L. Savage [7]



J. Von Neumann [9]



B. De Finetti [5]

All justify probabilities (and expected utilities) as uncertainty models without frequencies.

## An example

This looks like a big animal, so more a puma or lioness than a cat or ocelot ( $P(L) = P(P) = 0.3$ ,  $P(C) = P(O) = 0.2$ )

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$	$P(a)$
$R$	7	-3	3	5	2.8
$S$	-10	4	4	11	
$D$	-5	-5	5	7	
$Max$					

$$P(R) = 0.3 \cdot 7 + 0.3 \cdot -3 + 0.2 \cdot 3 + 0.2 \cdot 5 = 2.8$$



## An example

This looks like a big animal, so more a puma or lioness than a cat or ocelot ( $P(L) = P(P) = 0.3$ ,  $P(C) = P(O) = 0.2$ )

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$	$P(a)$
$R$	7	-3	3	5	2.8
$S$	-10	4	4	11	1.2
$D$	-5	-5	5	7	-0.6
$Max$					2.8

$$R \succ_P S \succ_P D$$

# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- Decision with probability sets
  - Probabilities
  - Ignorance, complete order
  - Ignorance, partial orders
  - Probability sets with illustration

## Maximin: pessimistic behaviour

- For each action  $a_i$ , compute  $\underline{P}(a_i) = \min_{x_j \in \mathcal{X}} a_i(x_j)$
- Say that  $a_k \succ_{Mm} a_\ell$  if  $\underline{P}(a_k) > \underline{P}(a_\ell)$

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$	$\underline{P}(a)$
$\textcircled{R}$	7	-3	3	5	-3
$S$	-10	4	4	11	-10
$D$	-5	-5	5	7	-5
$Max$					$\textcircled{-3}$

- We get  $R \succ_{Mm} D \succ_{Mm} S$ , hence  $R$  is recommended
- Pessimistic attitude: best action in the worst case

## Why (not) maximin?

Pros:

- Provide strong guarantees on selected option
- Is very-well studied in the literature

Cons:

- Can be very conservative
- Selected option may be suboptimal in all cases

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$	$\underline{P}(a)$
$R$	7	-3	3	5	-3
$S$	-10	4	4	11	-10
$D$	-5	-5	5	7	-5
$K$	-2	-2	-2	-2	-2
$Max$					-2

K never the best solution!

## Maximax: optimistic behaviour

- For each action  $a_i$ , compute  $\bar{P}(a_i) = \max_{x_j \in \mathcal{X}} a_i(x_j)$
- Say that  $a_k \succ_{MM} a_\ell$  if  $\bar{P}(a_k) > \bar{P}(a_\ell)$

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$	$\bar{P}(a)$
$R$	7	-3	3	5	7
$\textcircled{S}$	-10	4	4	11	11
$D$	-5	-5	5	7	7
$Max$					$\textcircled{11}$

- We get  $S \succ_{MM} D \approx_{MM} R$ , hence  $S$  is recommended
- Optimistic attitude: best action in the best case

## Why (not) maximax?

Pros:

- Often computationally easier (max/max problem)
- Solution always potentially optimal

Cons:

- May be rather bold (and in our case your last decision)
- Do not provide strong guarantees on reward

## In-between: Hurwicz

- Pick a value  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ , called optimism index
- For  $a_i$ , compute

$$u_{H(\alpha)}(a_i) = \alpha \bar{P}(a_i) + (1 - \alpha) \underline{P}(a_i)$$

- Say that  $a_k \succ_{\alpha} a_{\ell}$  if  $u_{H(\alpha)}(a_k) > u_{H(\alpha)}(a_{\ell})$

	<i>L</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>O</i>	$\underline{P}(a_i)$	$\bar{P}(a_i)$	$u_{H(0.5)}(a_i)$
Ⓡ	7	-3	3	5	-3	7	2
<i>S</i>	-10	4	4	11	-10	11	0.5
<i>D</i>	-5	-5	5	7	-5	7	1
<i>Max</i>							Ⓜ

- We get  $R \succ_{H(0.5)} D \succ_{H(0.5)} S$ , hence *R* is recommended
- Try to balance between optimistic and pessimistic

## Why (not) Hurwicz

### Pros:

- Try to find a compromise between minimax/maximax
- Well-axiomatised

### Cons:

- None of the guarantees of minimax/maximax
- All their defaults, but to a lesser extent
- Operational elicitation of  $\alpha$  challenging



## Savage Minimax regret

- For action  $a_i$ , compute  $Re(a_i, x_j) = \max_{a_k \in \mathcal{A}} a_k(x_j) - a_i(x_j)$  the regret of picking  $a_i$  in  $x_j$ , instead of the best possible action
- For  $a_i$ , compute  $Re^*(a_i) = \max_j Re(a_i, x_j)$
- Say that  $a_k \succ_{Re} a_\ell$  if  $Re^*(a_\ell) > Re^*(a_k)$

	<i>L</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>O</i>	$Re^*(a_i)$
<i>R</i>	7	-3	3	5	
$Re(R)$	0				
<i>S</i>	-10	4	4	11	
$Re(S)$					
<i>D</i>	-5	-5	5	7	
$Re(D)$					
<i>Min</i>					

## Savage Minimax regret

- For action  $a_i$ , compute  $Re(a_i, x_j) = \max_{a_k \in \mathcal{A}} a_k(x_j) - a_i(x_j)$  the regret of picking  $a_i$  in  $x_j$ , instead of the best possible action
- For  $a_i$ , compute  $Re^*(a_i) = \max_j Re(a_i, x_j)$
- Say that  $a_k \succ_{Re} a_\ell$  if  $Re^*(a_\ell) > Re^*(a_k)$

	<i>L</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>O</i>	$Re^*(a_i)$
<i>R</i>	7	-3	3	5	
$Re(R)$	0	7			
<i>S</i>	-10	4	4	11	
$Re(S)$					
<i>D</i>	-5	-5	5	7	
$Re(D)$					
<i>Min</i>					

## Savage Minimax regret

- For action  $a_i$ , compute  $Re(a_i, x_j) = \max_{a_k \in \mathcal{A}} a_k(x_j) - a_i(x_j)$  the regret of picking  $a_i$  in  $x_j$ , instead of the best possible action
- For  $a_i$ , compute  $Re^*(a_i) = \max_j Re(a_i, x_j)$
- Say that  $a_k \succ_{Re} a_\ell$  if  $Re^*(a_\ell) > Re^*(a_k)$

	<i>L</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>O</i>	$Re^*(a_i)$
<i>R</i>	7	-3	3	5	7
$Re(R)$	0	7	2	6	
<i>S</i>	-10	4	4	11	11
$Re(S)$					
<i>D</i>	-5	-5	5	7	7
$Re(D)$					
<i>Min</i>					

## Savage Minimax regret

- For action  $a_i$ , compute  $Re(a_i, x_j) = \max_{a_k \in \mathcal{A}} a_k(x_j) - a_i(x_j)$  the regret of picking  $a_i$  in  $x_j$ , instead of the best possible action
- For  $a_i$ , compute  $Re^*(a_i) = \max_j Re(a_i, x_j)$
- Say that  $a_k \succ_{Re} a_\ell$  if  $Re^*(a_\ell) > Re^*(a_k)$

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$	$Re^*(a_i)$
$R$	7	-3	3	5	
$Re(R)$	0	7	2	6	7
$S$	-10	4	4	11	
$Re(S)$	17	0	1	0	17
$D$	-5	-5	5	7	
$Re(D)$	12	9	0	4	12
$Min$					

## Savage Minimax regret

- For action  $a_i$ , compute  $Re(a_i, x_j) = \max_{a_k \in \mathcal{A}} a_k(x_j) - a_i(x_j)$  the regret of picking  $a_i$  in  $x_j$ , instead of the best possible action
- For  $a_i$ , compute  $Re^*(a_i) = \max_j Re(a_i, x_j)$
- Say that  $a_k \succ_{Re} a_\ell$  if  $Re^*(a_\ell) > Re^*(a_k)$

	<i>L</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>O</i>	$Re^*(a_i)$
<i>R</i>	7	-3	3	5	7
$Re(R)$	0	7	2	6	
<i>S</i>	-10	4	4	11	17
$Re(S)$	17	0	1	0	
<i>D</i>	-5	-5	5	7	12
$Re(D)$	12	9	0	4	
<i>Min</i>					7

- We get  $R \succ_{Re} D \succ_{Re} S$ , hence  $R$  is recommended
- Minimize regret, but sensitive to addition of non-optimal alternatives

## Minimax regret vs maximin

Consider the following case:

	$x_1$	$\dots$	$x_{99}$	$x_{100}$	$R^*(a_i)$	$\underline{P}(a_i)$
$a_1$	10	$\dots$	10	1		
$R(a_1)$						
$a_2$	2	$\dots$	2	2		
$R(a_2)$						
$Min$						

## Minimax regret vs maximin

Consider the following case:

	$x_1$	$\dots$	$x_{99}$	$x_{100}$	$R^*(a_i)$	$\underline{P}(a_i)$
$a_1$	10	$\dots$	10	1		1
$R(a_1)$	0	$\dots$	0	1	1	
$a_2$	2	$\dots$	2	2		2
$R(a_2)$	8	$\dots$	8	0	8	
$Min$					1	2

- Maximin:  $a_2$
- Minimax regret:  $a_1$

## Minimax regret and irrelevant alternatives

Before:  $R \succ_{Re} D \succ_{Re} S$

Now I get (A)nti-puma!



	<i>L</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>O</i>	$Re^*(a_i)$
<i>R</i>	7	-3	3	5	
$Re(R)$					
<i>S</i>	-10	4	4	11	
$Re(S)$					
<i>D</i>	-5	-5	5	7	
$Re(D)$					
<i>A</i>	-15	15	-2	0	
$Re(A)$					
<i>Min</i>					

After *A* is possible:



## Minimax regret and irrelevant alternatives

Before:  $R \succ_{Re} D \succ_{Re} S$

Now I get (A)nti-puma!



	<i>L</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>O</i>	$Re^*(a_i)$
<i>R</i>	7	-3	3	5	
$Re(R)$	0	18	2	6	18
<i>S</i>	-10	4	4	11	
$Re(S)$	17	11	1	0	17
<i>D</i>	-5	-5	5	7	
$Re(D)$	12	10	0	4	12
<i>A</i>	-15	15	-2	0	
$Re(A)$	22	0	5	11	22
<i>Min</i>					12

After *A* is possible:  $D \succ_{Re} S \succ_{Re} R \succ_{Re} A$  (change on preferences not involving *A*)

## Complete ordering: summary

- Minimax=pessimistic [10]
- Maximax=optimistic
- Hurwicz=in-between [1]
- Savage=Minimizing felt regret [7]

Whatever the chosen rule, we always get one optimal action. But we need to commit to a peculiar behaviour.

What if DM does not want to commit to peculiar behaviour?

What if DM wants to only know the actions that are potentially optimal, given our uncertainty?

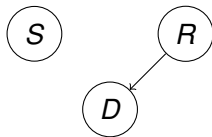
# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- **Decision with probability sets**
  - Probabilities
  - Ignorance, complete order
  - **Ignorance, partial orders**
  - Probability sets with illustration

## Lattice ordering

- Say that  $a_k \succeq_L a_\ell$  if  $\bar{P}(a_k) \geq \bar{P}(a_\ell)$  and  $\underline{P}(a_k) \geq \underline{P}(a_\ell)$

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$	$\underline{P}(a_i)$	$\bar{P}(a_i)$
$R$	7	-3	3	5	-3	7
$S$	-10	4	4	11	-10	11
$D$	-5	-5	5	7	-5	7



- Only existing dominance is  $D$  by  $R$ , hence only  $D$  is considered non-optimal
- Can be seen as a robust Hurwicz (considering all  $\alpha$  as possibilities)
- Note that with this criterion, we eliminate the best action in state  $C$
- This rule looks good, why should I not use it?

## Information-monotonic preferences

### Principle

A (partial) decision rule is information monotonic if gaining more information can only refine our current preferences

### Definition for imprecise information

A decision rule  $\succeq$  is information monotonic if for any pair of actions  $a, b$  and for  $E' \subseteq E$ , we have

$$(E \Rightarrow a \succeq b) \Rightarrow (E' \Rightarrow a \succeq b),$$

meaning that the preference relation can only be refined by getting more precise

## Lattice ordering and information monotonicity

	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	$\underline{P}(a_i)$	$\overline{P}(a_i)$
$a$	10	12	14	15	10	15
$b$	13	11	16	14	11	16

$$b > a$$

All states possible

## Lattice ordering and information monotonicity

	<del><math>x_1</math></del>	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	$\underline{P}(a_i)$	$\bar{P}(a_i)$
$a$	<del>10</del>	12	14	15	12	15
$b$	<del>13</del>	11	16	14	11	16

$$b \succsim a$$

We learn (gain info)  $x_1$  impossible

$a$  and  $b$  becomes incomparable.

## Lattice ordering and information monotonicity

	<del>*1</del>	$x_2$	<del>*3</del>	$x_4$	$\underline{P}(a_i)$	$\bar{P}(a_i)$
$a$	<del>10</del>	12	<del>14</del>	15	12	15
$b$	<del>13</del>	11	<del>16</del>	14	11	14

$$b < a$$

We learn (gain info)  $x_3$  impossible

$a$  is now preferred to  $b$ .



## Refining Pareto

### Principle

A (partial) decision rule refines Pareto if it ensures that its preference order refines Pareto dominance

### Definition for imprecise information

A decision rule  $\succeq$  refines Pareto if for any pair of actions  $a, b$

$$a \succeq_P b \implies a \succeq b,$$

where  $\succeq_P$  is Pareto dominance

## Interval dominance

- Say that  $a_k >_{ID} a_\ell$  if  $\underline{P}(a_k) > \bar{P}(a_\ell)$

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$	$\underline{P}(a_i)$	$\bar{P}(a_i)$
$R$	7	-3	3	5	-3	7
$S$	-10	4	4	11	-10	11
$D$	-5	-5	5	7	-5	7



- no dominance at all
- overcautious criterion  $\rightarrow$  may retain Pareto-dominated solutions

## Interval dominance: drawback example

- We add a fourth possible action  $Pe = \text{Pet the animal}$

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$	$\underline{P}(a_i)$	$\overline{P}(a_i)$
$R$	7	-3	3	5	-3	7
$S$	-10	4	4	11	-10	11
$D$	-5	-5	5	7	-5	7
$Pe$	-5	-5	2	-5	-5	2

$R$

$S$

$Pe$

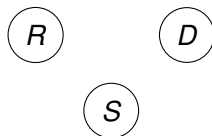
$D$

- no dominance, all intervals intersect
- even if  $D$  better (sometimes strictly) than  $Pe$  in **every** situation!

## Difference dominance

- Say that  $a_k \succeq_D a_\ell$  if  $a_k(x_j) - a_\ell(x_j) \geq 0$  for all  $x_j$  ( $>$  if  $> 0$  for at least one  $x_j$ )

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$
$R$	7	-3	3	5
$S$	-10	4	4	11
$D$	-5	-5	5	7
$R - S$	17	-7	-1	-6

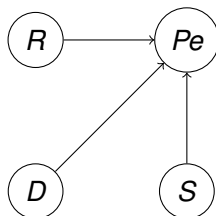


- no dominance at all, again
- do we have the same problem as with interval dominance?

## Difference comparison

- We add a fourth possible action  $Pe$  = Pet the animal

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$
$R$	7	-3	3	5
$S$	-10	4	4	11
$D$	-5	-5	5	7
$Pe$	-5	-5	2	-5
$D - Pe$	0	0	3	12



- In the ignorance case, exactly Pareto ordering!

## So far...

Options when true state of the world completely unknown:

- Complete ordering/one top recommendation
  - Maximin: pessimistic DM
  - Maximax: optimistic DM
  - Hurwicz: attempt to in-between
  - Regret minimax: pessimistic DM w.r.t. regret
- Partial ordering/multiple recommendations reflecting lack of knowledge
  - Lattice ordering: robust hurwicz, may miss potentially optimal actions
  - Difference dominance: will keep every non-Pareto dominated solution
  - Interval dominance: very conservative, may keep Pareto dominated options

## A summary of the different rules

Property	$\succ_{Mm}$	$\succ_{MM}$	$\succ_R$	$\succ_{H(\alpha)}$	$\succ_L$	$\succ_D$	$\succ_{ID}$
Complete	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	X	X
Reco possibly optimal	$X^*$	✓	$X^*$	$X^*$	✓	✓	✓
Guaranteed value	✓	X	✓	X	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
$a \succ b$ depends only on $a, b$	✓	✓	X	✓	✓	✓	✓
Refines Pareto	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	X
Information monotonic	X	X	X	X	X	✓	✓

We also have  $\succ_L \subseteq \succ_D \subseteq \succ_{ID}$ , going from the most precise to the least

\* Not guaranteed to be.

# Outline

- Basics
- Probabilities as bets
- Going beyond betting probabilities: why and how?
- Probability sets, a.k.a. credal sets
- Practical models and computations
- **Decision with probability sets**
  - Probabilities
  - Ignorance, complete order
  - Ignorance, partial orders
  - **Probability sets with illustration**



## Previous decision rules adaptation

In general, replace  $u^*$  by upper expectation  $\bar{P}$ ,  $u_*$  by lower expectation  $\underline{P}$

Total order

- Maximax:  $a \succeq_{MM} b$  if  $\bar{P}(a) \geq \bar{P}(b)$
- Maximin:  $a \succeq_{Mm} b$  if  $\underline{P}(a) \geq \underline{P}(b)$
- Hurwicz:  $a \succeq_{\alpha} b$  if  $\alpha \bar{P}(a) + (1 - \alpha) \underline{P}(a) \geq \alpha \bar{P}(b) + (1 - \alpha) \underline{P}(b)$

Partial order

- Interval dominance:  $a \succ_{ID} b$  if  $\bar{P}(b) \leq \underline{P}(a)$
- Lattice:  $a \succ_L b$  if  $\bar{P}(b) \leq \bar{P}(a) \wedge \underline{P}(b) \leq \underline{P}(a)$
- Difference:  $a \succ_D b$  if  $\underline{P}(a - b) \geq 0$

## Difference dominance

Under knowledge  $\mathcal{P}$ , action  $a_k$  is better than  $a_\ell$  if

$$\underline{P}(a_k - a_\ell) = \inf_{p \in \mathcal{P}} P(a_k - a_\ell),$$

that is if in average, we gain something when exchanging  $a_\ell$  for  $a_k$

### Special cases

- probabilities  $\equiv$  expected utility
- set  $\equiv$  difference dominance (filter out Pareto-dominated solutions)

## E-admissibility

- Previous rules use orderings between alternatives
- Another way: pick potentially optimal answers
- For a given set  $\mathcal{A}$  of actions and a probability  $p$ , let

$$Opt(P, \mathcal{A}) = \arg \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} P(a)$$

- The E-admissible rule returns the set

$$Opt_E(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}) = \cup_{P \in \mathcal{M}} Opt(P, \mathcal{A})$$

## Links between rules

Given  $\succ_i$ , we denote  $Opt_{\succ_i}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}) := \{a \in \mathbb{A} : \nexists a' \text{ s.t. } a' \succ_i a\}$  its set of maximal elements.

We have the following relations:

- $a \succeq_{ID} b \implies a \succeq_D b \implies a \succeq_L b \implies a \succeq_\alpha b \quad \forall \alpha$
- $Opt_E(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}) \subseteq Opt_{\succ_D}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}) \subseteq Opt_{\succ_{ID}}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A})$
- $Opt_{\succ_\alpha}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}) \subseteq Opt_{\succ_L}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}) \subseteq Opt_{\succ_D}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A})$

As an exercise, prove the implications of the first line, and the first inclusion of the second (other inclusions immediately follow from implications).

## Back to Ellsberg

9 balls, 3 are reds, 6 remaining are either yellow or black

A

R(ed)	B(lack)	Y(ellow)
100 \$	0 \$	0\$

B

R(ed)	B(lack)	Y(ellow)
0 \$	100 \$	0\$

C

R(ed)	B(lack)	Y(ellow)
100 \$	0 \$	100\$

D

R(ed)	B(lack)	Y(ellow)
0 \$	100 \$	100\$

- What are the possible probability values? In terms of bounds over each colour?
- Compute the lower/upper expectations for each act
- What kind of comparison explain the most frequent behaviour  $A \geq B$  but  $D \geq C$ ?

## A more elaborate example



Set of labellers replying between

◦ L(ioness) ◦ P(uma) ◦ C(at) ◦ O(celot)

- 20% reply  $\{L, P\} \rightarrow m(\{L, P\}) = 0.2$
- 10% reply  $\{L, P, O\} \rightarrow m(\{L, P, O\}) = 0.1$
- 15% reply  $\{C, O, P\} \rightarrow m(\{C, O, P\}) = 0.15$
- 10% reply  $\{L\} \rightarrow m(\{L\}) = 0.1$
- 40% reply  $\{L, P, C, O\} \rightarrow m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.4$

## Back to our issue: example of some rules (not all)

Is  $R$  better than  $S$ , or the other way around?

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$
<i>Run</i>	7	-3	3	5
<i>Shout</i>	-10	4	4	11
<i>Do nothing</i>	-5	-5	5	7

- $m(\{L, P\}) = 0.2$
- $m(\{L, P, O\}) = 0.1$
- $m(\{C, O, P\}) = 0.15$
- $m(\{L\}) = 0.1$
- $m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.4$

Evaluation: averaging utility + attitude (pessimist/optimist/robust)

## Back to our issue: example of some rules (not all)

Is  $R$  better than  $S$ , or the other way around?

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$
<i>Run</i>	7	-3	3	5
<i>Shout</i>	-10	4	4	11
<i>Do nothing</i>	-5	-5	5	7

- $m(\{L, P\}) = 0.2$
- $m(\{L, P, O\}) = 0.1$
- $m(\{C, O, P\}) = 0.15$
- $m(\{L\}) = 0.1$
- $m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.4$

Evaluation: averaging utility + attitude (pessimist/optimist/robust)

$$\underline{P}(\text{Run}) = 0.2 \times -3 + 0.1 \times -3 + 0.15 \times -3 + 0.1 \times 7 + 0.4 \times -3 = -2$$

$$\underline{P}(\text{Shout}) = 0.2 \times -10 + 0.1 \times -10 + 0.15 \times 4 + 0.1 \times -10 + 0.4 \times -10 = -7.9$$

Seems better to Run than Shout



## Back to our issue: example of some rules (not all)

Is  $R$  better than  $S$ , or the other way around?

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$
<i>Run</i>	7	-3	3	5
<i>Shout</i>	-10	4	4	11
<i>Do nothing</i>	-5	-5	5	7

- $m(\{L, P\}) = 0.2$
- $m(\{L, P, O\}) = 0.1$
- $m(\{C, O, P\}) = 0.15$
- $m(\{L\}) = 0.1$
- $m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.4$

Evaluation: averaging utility + attitude (pessimist/optimist/robust)

$$\bar{P}(\text{Run}) = 0.2 \times 7 + 0.1 \times 7 + 0.15 \times 5 + 0.1 \times 7 + 0.4 \times 7 = 6.7$$

$$\bar{P}(\text{Shout}) = 0.2 \times 4 + 0.1 \times 11 + 0.15 \times 11 + 0.1 \times -10 + 0.4 \times 11 = 6.95$$

Seems better to Shout than Run

## Back to our issue: example of some rules (not all)

Is  $R$  better than  $S$ , or the other way around?

	$L$	$P$	$C$	$O$
$Run$	7	-3	3	5
$Shout$	-10	4	4	11
$Do\ nothing$	-5	-5	5	7

- $m(\{L, P\}) = 0.2$
- $m(\{L, P, O\}) = 0.1$
- $m(\{C, O, P\}) = 0.15$
- $m(\{L\}) = 0.1$
- $m(\mathcal{S}) = 0.4$

Evaluation: averaging utility + attitude (pessimist/optimist/**robust**)

$$[\underline{P}(Run), \bar{P}(Run)] = [-2, 6.7]$$

$$[\underline{P}(Shout), \bar{P}(Shout)] = [-7.9, 6.95]$$

Not entirely clear what is the best (as Puma and Lion are both likely)

## References I

- [1] K. J. Arrow and L. Hurwicz.  
An optimality criterion for decision-making under ignorance.  
*Uncertainty and expectations in economics*, pages 1–11, 1972.
- [2] S. Destercke, D. Dubois, and E. Chojnacki.  
Unifying practical uncertainty representations: I generalized p-boxes.  
*Int. J. of Approximate Reasoning*, 49:649–663, 2008.
- [3] D. Dubois and H. Prade.  
Possibilistic logic: a retrospective and prospective view.  
*Fuzzy Sets and Systems*, 144(1):3 – 23, 2004.
- [4] S. Ferson, L. Ginzburg, V. Kreinovich, D. Myers, and K. Sentz.  
Constructing probability boxes and dempster-shafer structures.  
Technical report, Sandia National Laboratories, 2003.
- [5] B. Finetti.  
*Theory of probability*, volume 1-2.  
Wiley, NY, 1974.  
Translation of 1970 book.
- [6] S. Sandri, D. Dubois, and H. Kalfsbeek.  
Elicitation, assessment and pooling of expert judgments using possibility theory.  
*IEEE Trans. on Fuzzy Systems*, 3(3):313–335, August 1995.
- [7] L. J. Savage.  
The theory of statistical decision.  
*Journal of the American Statistical association*, 46(253):55–67, 1951.

## References II

- [8] M. C. M. Troffaes and S. Destercke.  
Probability boxes on totally preordered spaces for multivariate modelling.  
*Int. J. Approx. Reasoning*, 52(6):767–791, 2011.
- [9] J. von Neumann and O. Morgenstern.  
*Theory of Games and Economic Behavior*.  
Princeton University Press, 1944.
- [10] A. Wald.  
Statistical decision functions.  
1950.